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THOUGHTS ON ADMINISTRATION

in

EXTENSION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

131

Edited By
John M. Fenley

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FOREWORD

Administration by persons not trained in administrative theory may be a hit-or-miss operation. This has sometimes been the case in extension and rural development organizations. The overall objective of the present issue of our Mimeo Releases is to present several pertinent administrative concepts and ideas that may help extension administrators.

The first paper, by Dr. Lloyd H. Elliott, was given as an address to the Comparative Extension Seminar shortly before he was named President of the University of Maine. His several years on the Rural Education Staff at Cornell as Professor of Educational Administration gave him a keen insight into all forms of administration and supervision. For the two or three years immediately before his leaving Cornell to go to Maine, he served as Special Assistant to the President of Cornell University. The impact of these experiences is apparent in his paper as he seeks for those basic truths helpful to extension executives.

In the second paper is presented an examination of the applicability of administrative theory to extension. Originally reproduced for the Seminar, the paper served as the basis for discussion on administrative problems in extension. Later it was reviewed by C. M. Ferguson, then Administrator of the Federal Extension Service, who offered many suggestions. The author is likewise indebted to Mr. Roland H. Groder of the Oregon Extension Service, who, while as a graduate student at Cornell, critically read the manuscript; he also offered many suggestions.

The last paper discusses a phase of personnel administration never previously described in extension literature. Its author, Mr. Evelyn Wood of Bombay, India is currently a private Consultant in Communications. His services go mainly to industries that employ migrant labor from the villages, as well as to businesses wanting to develop rural markets. Born and educated in London as an engineer, his lifelong familiarity with Indian villages (beginning in 1924) has been capitalized on by several agencies, private and governmental, national and international. The United Nations claimed him in 1950 as a consultant for two of its specialized agencies, WHO and UNESCO. From 1951 to 1956 he held dual roles, one as a commercial propagandist for market development in rural India, the second as a Ford Foundation consultant on communications at India's Allahabad Agricultural Institute for its pilot extension project carried on in 428 villages. His many articles, appearing in journals and other publications originating from both within and outside India, indicate he is doing something positive by posing sound ideas and suggestions leading to improvement of village life.

We are including Mr. Wood's article as an excellent example of how "contact persons" can be evaluated. In extension the contact person is that individual who brings or represents the extension agency to the people. Administratively, it is difficult to ascertain the effectiveness of a contact person. Mr. Wood brings to our readers a system he has developed to determine the ability of field workers. The author reports in a letter to the Editor that the field workers, using extension methods and techniques given them in their training, were able to increase their village sales six hundred percent in four years. Their constant evaluation by the firm's representatives played an important part in this phenomenal increase in effectiveness.

Cornell University
April 1961

John M. Fenley
Editor

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SOME CONCEPTS IN ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY

by

Lloyd H. Elliott
President, University of Maine

Some years ago when I was a scholar in the field of administration, trying to unravel what were then to me a number of conflicting ideas and concepts, it occurred to me that one of the most dangerous traps into which we frequently fall is to look at our own field to the exclusion of many others that have something to offer with regard to our particular discipline. The greatest challenge that we have is bringing to bear in our field the contributions of many other areas of knowledge.

Some eight or ten years ago I asked myself this question, "Is there not something (or if there is not, is that not worth finding out?) in the fields of administration as we know them in the various colleges, universities, and practitioner establishments, that can be pulled together in terms of what might be called an administrative theory?"

Here were the political scientists talking about administrative theory, staffs of schools of business and public administration expounding on administration in public affairs, school superintendents and college administrators were discussing their administrative problems, and persons concerned with industry in the engineering school and industrial relations were studying problems of administration in areas of interest to them. I asked myself what these people in their respective areas of management have in common, and then set about to find out.

The first thing I did was to ignore my own field because having been a school principal, superintendent, and college administrator, I felt that I knew about the offerings in educational administration. So right here at Cornell I made the rounds: to the Graduate School of Business and Public Administration, to the School of Industrial and Labor Relations, to the Engineering School, and even to the Law School (to see what there was in the field of law, ethics, and morality as practiced or theorized in administration). The concepts I bring you today have emerged from this background of searching.

Actually, I suppose what I was seeking was an answer to a similar question, "Is there a process by which an administrator can be guided in the conduct of his work, whether that work be public affairs, industrial management, business, or any other type?" I shall use the word educational administration only infrequently in this reference. I think that my search turned out one other interesting prelude to what I have to say. That is, that I became interested in the thoery of administration as well as in its practice, although I have learned that it is much safer to be a theorist than a practitioner. To a theorist the things with which you deal need be only somewhere in the visionary realm. You never have to answer then in reality.

You can therefore build a set of concepts of administration that is perfect, because no one has to make mistakes in putting it into practice. During the last couple of years I have wondered what mistakes I am making in my own serenity. Be that as it may, my set of concepts includes six major areas, and I now want to examine each of these in some detail.

Definition

The first concept I want to present, as a common denominator, is the concept of definition. I am convinced that a basic concept in administration, and one which concerns every establishment in every imaginable situation, is the problem of defining the purpose of the organization. You have done quite a bit toward defining the objectives of extension education and where you are headed. I need not warn you therefore how difficult it will be to carry those objectives into practice without having them eroded, changed by interpretation, bandied about and given all kinds of peculiar twists, from persons who happen at the moment to want this or that or something else out of extension education.

I would prefer to use an example to show you how important this seems to me to be, from our own federal government. I would point out the differences in objective between the Defense Department and the Department of Health, Welfare and Education. I believe that we might agree that the first one, the Defense Department, has a singleness of purpose which is far easier to identify when a group of people sit around a table considering defense matters. If we were such a group, there would be little difficulty in agreeing what we were to do, what we are striving for, what our objective is, and where our energies should be directed. But when we consider the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and try to project the purposes of this department so that they would meet the requirements of the work, acceptance of congressmen, executive members, and the general citizenry of the country as a whole, we find that things of particular interest to one group are obliterated by the desires and wishes of other groups. I use this example to point out how difficult some things are from the very start in administration, insofar as where we think we are going and what we expect to accomplish. Now add to this also the situation where leaders in these different enterprises might disagree among themselves as to the primary objectives and our purposes of the organization. In health, education, and welfare, we might feel that the prevention of disease may be the most significant and vital thing in the entire program. Others will say "No, it is a strong system of public education that must take precedence;" still others say "No, it is the standard of living which must be guaranteed for the people." And so, these people sit around the table trying to make policy for the same department and somebody (several people, obviously, in a group of this kind) has to make administrative decisions based on policies. The first thing, therefore, in the administration of an enterprise is to know where you are going and what you expect to achieve.

I'll use a further example which is often pointed out in America, but I'm not sure how true it is. Let's just say that you are business

manager of an enterprise and let's assume that this enterprise exists primarily to make profit for the stockholders. Now let's follow up finances for just a moment and I'm sure you can see where this will lead. A great many ethical questions, questions of morality in dealing with fellow men, would have to take a secondary place. Profit would be the topmost objective. Many business people are accused of this; I have not yet met any business person who would agree that this is the primary purpose of his business organization and I know a great many business men who think in terms of their purposes much more broadly. But, assuming that this is the primary purpose in your organization, how simple it would be. Your auditors, accountants, and engineers could simply advise you which is the cheaper route, which is the greatest margin of profit and that would be your answer. You do not even have to consider consumers, unless the product you are selling is one that will not last very long so that you can replace it.

Establishment of Policy

The second concept in administration that I'd like to present is that administration cannot take place without the establishment of policy. In this country we hear a great deal about written policy. Policy is formulated all the time and any time an administrator makes a decision he contributes to the development of policy. Precedent itself is a very important policy making device. Just the time employees come to work, their holidays, the way in which they break up their day, in fact any change in such routine matters as these, indicates a change in policy. It need not be written, sometimes it needs only to be announced. Sometimes, and this happens every day in administration, policies are but an answer to the question of the moment "Shall we do this or that?"

Policy is fundamental to administration. The only danger in policy is that it becomes tradition and tradition becomes difficult to change. We do something now because it was done this way last week, last year, 20 years ago. I'm sure that among the cultural groups represented around this table, this statement has different meanings but, in America, I would say that one of our great dangers in administration is management by expediency. Our management is directed by policy, but it is directed too much by the expediency of the moment and the vacillation of the administrator himself. Therefore, in the end, the result may be that too many people do not know what is expected of them in the organization in which they find themselves.

Delegation of Authority

I refer to delegation both upward as well as downward, although in our organizations we follow mostly the downward route. There is an end, of course, to delegation of authority. There is a point at which somebody must act; someone must work to do the job. In a large organization

word get around. In America, at least, there comes a time when somebody can no longer "pass the buck" and he has to do something about it. These are the two ends of the line. In most organizations, it would be helpful if all the work or 99 percent of it, were done in between the extremes. I do not know whether we will ever reach that point.

The other kind of delegation that I want to refer to, and I think this is the one most often missed, is that delegation is horizontal as well as vertical. It is just as important, and maybe more so, that the line be identified clearly between two positions, horizontally as well as vertically. I refer to horizontal delegation as the delegation which differentiates responsibilities at the same level of authority. We can create havoc in an organization by a great many routes -- we are not aware of all of them -- but one certain way is to fail to take cognizance of the lines of delegated authority, be they horizontal or vertical.

Now I could not talk about delegation of authority without mentioning that in the fields to which I refer there are many cases where the lack of adequate delegation has been the fundamental weakness of the administrator. I refer to cases where men are so conscientious or at least feel such responsibilities to the company or organization that they cannot give up responsibility for a task to subordinates. The accumulation is such that they keep more than they can handle. Individually, they become the bottleneck through which action is clocked, not because they want to be, but because they cannot let others act.

The ability to delegate is one of the great strengths of administration and the administrator who cannot do that is certain to find a level of administration beyond which he cannot go. He cannot meet the pressure of passing along responsibility to others. This may be a distrust of the judgment of others, although this is a kind of negative analysis. It may be that he just cannot surrender authority and responsibility. Many persons break their own backs by the accumulated weight of decisions which they will not delegate. While able to do a satisfactory job in a limited area, they cannot take on the broader responsibility. Now in delegation, I could not pass this point without bringing along an account which I picked up a few years ago and this is a setting which may be familiar to some of you. It goes back sufficiently far in history that the lesson is taught without identification of personalities or of the situation. This was Sir Ian Hamilton -- I'll let his words speak for themselves, as they bring out another wrinkle in this matter of delegation of authority that I am here stressing.

"In 1896 I was Deputy Quartermaster General in Simla, then, perhaps and still, one of the hardest worked billets in Asia. After a long office day I used to get back home for dinner pursued by a pile of files three or four feet high. The Quartermaster General, my boss, was a clever, delightful work glutton. So we sweated and ran together for a while a neck-and-neck race with our piles of files, but I was the younger and he was the first to be ordered off by the doctors. Then I, at the age of 43, stepped into his shoes and became officiating Quartermaster General in

India. Unluckily, the government at that moment was in a very stingy mood. They refused to provide pay to fill the post I was vacating and Sir George White, the Commander, asked me to duplicate myself and do the double work. My heart sank but there was nothing for it but to have a try. The day came, the Quartermaster General went home, and with him went the whole of his share of the work. As for my own share, the hard 12 hours task melted by some magic into the socialist dream of the six hour day. Now how was that? Because when a question came up from one of the departments I had formerly been forced to compose a long minute on it, explaining the case, putting my own views, and endeavoring to persuade the Quartermaster General to accept them. He was a highly conscientious man and if he differed from me, he like to put on record his reasons, several pages of reasons. Or if he agreed with me he liked to agree in his own words and put them on the record. Now when I became Quartermaster General and Deputy Quartermaster General rolled into one, I studied the case as formerly, but there my work ended. I had not to persuade my own subordinates; I had no superior except the Commander-in-Chief who was delighted to be left alone. I just gave an order -- quite a simple matter unless a man is afraid. 'Yes,' I said, or, 'No.'" Perhaps we can all learn how to save time and energy from that anecdote.

Individual Common Denominators

The fourth concept that I would like to bring up is that of common denominators, or a group of individual traits which seem to be successful in administration whether the administrator is running a corner grocery store, Sears & Roebuck, the extension service of state or national governments, or some other complex enterprise. Some of these are of course very familiar, the others perhaps not. I would like to put them down at this time as simply common denominators.

The ability to make decisions. Research in all of these fields comes up with the conclusion time and again, that judgment in decision making is the one characteristic that differentiates administrators more than all others.

The ability to assume responsibility without undue strain. Now I do not know what undue is. This is a well guarded thought, we would all admit. But I think the idea is self explanatory.

A sensitivity to human reactions. What effect does the yes or no have? Simply to give, quick and to the point, very decisive decisions, but on the follow up we must know what effect the decision has.

An ability to inspire, teach, and develop others. Certainly we aren't truly effective as administrators unless we stimulate others to do their best.

Fairness and sincerity. No administrator gets far if he is thought to be insincere.

Power of analysis. The ability to discriminate in relative values is another must. Can the administrator tell an important problem from an insignificant one?

Technical knowledge of the business, the enterprise, the organization, and experience and training in it. I do not think that we have reached the point where the president of a cannery in the United States can take over the administration of a nuclear development plant. He might take over the title, but for actual administration of one of the highly specialized nuclear plants, technical information is necessary. Nearly everything that requires management also requires some special or technical knowledge.

Open mindedness and self control.

Health and vitality sufficient to perform the task. We know of a number of administrators, statesmen, and heads of various organizations who have continued in office with relatively little in the way of vitality, but those instances invariably came after some previous accomplishment and were simply a prolonging or projection of what they had done before.

Process of Administration

The fifth concept that I would like to present is the process of administration itself. Each of these fields to which I have referred has identified something that may be called the process, the elements, the machinery, or the know-how of administration. The only analogy which I can draw is one from my own imagination. A doctor comes to see my youngster who is ill and he does certain seemingly routine things to find out what is wrong with this youngster. He looks at him (what he sees is, I am sure, quite different from what I would see), he takes his pulse and temperature, and he listens to his heart, chest, or he looks at his throat, and so on. In other words, the doctor has what I would call a routine. Now, if you were analyzing an organization in terms of eventually answering questions of what needs to be done and what kinds of decisions need to be made, is there a process to help you? I mean a process by which you can look at an organization, whether it is Montgomery Ward, the corner grocery store, Cornell University, or the extension service? I would not claim anything that would give you the answers, but there seems to be a process that would save a lot of time and get you to the heart of the matter. During the last 15 or 20 years the struggle to find a process of administration has shown some hopeful results. From the various fields I have put tobether a kind of a step-by-step process. Some of it I have referred to already. This is the sequence.

1. Can you establish in your own mind what the organization proposes to do? Going back to the first thing I said, what is the purpose of the organization?

2. Are duties defined clearly? I heard an offer of a job being made a few days ago and the fellow who was offering it said to the prospect, "Well, I really do not know what we want you to do. We hope you'll come in and spend a year or so looking over this situation and then come up with your own program, your own ideas in some kind of a workable fashion which will be worth doing." This is quite a definition of a job, and yet, in some situations, this is about all that can be said. All I want to do by this example is to point out that we have this extreme and we should not ignore it. If we had the answer to what is the organization's basic purpose, we would have more direction for this step.

3. Can initiative be encouraged? Going back to the concept of delegation, no enterprise can be really healthy unless there is the practice of delegation. No delegation can be effective unless people all along the line have the freedom to exercise their initiative. You cannot delegate and still hamstring

4. How can we be sure of responsibility? The process in all of these fields that I have examined would demand that everyone in the organization be held responsible, accountable for what he does. This means some kind of regular report, some kind of regular evaluation or assessment of his success or lack of it.

5. Rewards must be made on the basis of accountability.

6. Part of the process is the coordination required by authority.

Administrative Discretion

Now the sixth concept that I would like to leave with you is the area which I shall call administrative discretion. In every phase of administration which I have examined there is an area which is discretionary. The administrator, at whatever level he may find himself, has certain discretionary powers which he may or may not exercise. He may go far in their exercise or he may stop short; but where regulation ends and discretion begins, a whole new responsibility faces the administrator. He must determine the directions; he must determine the restraints on himself, on those immediately about him; and he is constantly torn between the interests of those whom he serves and a keen sense of duty to those who work under him. This is the great area of discretion.

He is also torn between the fear of criticism and the desire to be popular with these people, with people outside the organization, with anyone with whom he is acquainted. Shall he act by coercion or by persuasion? This is a discretionary matter. Shall he act with humility or with arrogance? It is hard enough to know the two apart. Can he act with self confidence or must he act from fear or inaction? In the final analysis he has so many questions on which he must say, "Do I do nothing or do I do something?" This is in the realm of discretion.

* * * * *

I would like to close with reference to something that has been amusing to me in this field of administration. Every field that I have examined raises one question, "Is administration a science or an art?" I can argue both sides of it and I am always delighted to do so. You know the rules that make for a science and the aesthetical framework in which an art can be classified. Let me say simply that each field debates the problem; each field comes to the same conclusion -- that administration is both an art and a science. I have been interested, during the past few years, to read the journal which is named, The Science of Public Administration. I am glad to read it. I am a little amused because they have already reached the decision and I think they give by the title an indication of what is inside. They do lean towards the publication of studies that have a scientific basis for their conclusions. But as for me, having been through this travail, I have decided that I must go back to the conclusion of all of the fields, that it has aspects of both an art and a science.

EMPHASIZING CERTAIN ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESSES IN EXTENSION

by

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Introduction

As extension organizations become larger and more complex, it is inevitable that top extension people turn their attention to the nature and function of administrative action. If by administrative action we mean the art or science of handling people and affairs in an organization, then it is a corollary that the administrator, in order to perform with best interests to the organization and to himself, needs executive instruction and experience. The extension administrator must constantly bear in mind that one reason often attributed to extension's success is the relative absence of administrative controls. Success in extension cannot be separated from the local scene -- county, community, neighborhood. Therefore, the extension executive must constantly relate his every official action to the contact person (the extension worker in contact with the public served).

Follow-up and reorientation of decisions and policies in the light of previous thinking and action, and modified by the unfolding of new events, new ideas, and new knowledge, is a challenge to the extension executive. He must gather administrative information, assess its significance, sort the important from the unimportant, select the main items for more intensive attention. He must continually size up the extension situation by an analytical process, set up short term goals and long range objectives, and formulate organizational and operational patterns. The extension administrator must keep abreast of what is going on at all levels, and know how they are all interrelated and interdependent. If the executor isolates himself from the current extension events he becomes cut off and literally separated from "live" extension development. Yet, although he should be familiar with the total picture he should decentralize by delegating authority and responsibility to his staff.

Although we may set up the pattern of events for the extension administrator to follow, we must realize that many of the phases of administration are done concurrently, with the administrator starting one step before the previous step is completed. He may be working at the same time on several problems, each at a different stage of handling, so that the extension executive's life is spent in dealing with many complex extension situations of a dynamic character.

Freedom in Extension Administration

Few other agricultural agencies are as decentralized as is extension in the United States. On the national scale, supervision of state extension services from Washington is minor. Baker 1/ states that the Washington office if a "....skeleton organization in comparison with state and county field forces."

For the most part the various state organizations function along in a fairly autonomous manner, getting money (grants-in-aid) from the federal government but little effort to dominate. As Selsnick 2/ had stated "....existence of latent broad powers in the federal government -- which could be exercised if the situation warranted the risk of a political crisis -- induces (in the state extension services) a measure of voluntary restraint against gross inadequacies."

Each state extension service is under administrative control of its director, who may be located in the hierarchy of the college in one of three ways, classified according to the academic location of the state director in relation to the land-grant college. First, the dean of the college of agriculture is ex officio director of extension;.second, the director of extension appointed responsible to the dean of the college or in some states (where the college of agriculture is separate from the college of home economics) the director of extension is responsible to both the dean of agriculture and the dean of home economics; and third, the director of extension is responsible directly to the president of the land-grant college. 3/

Relationships between county extension services and their state offices are similar to those between the state and federal office. Freedom from centralized administration has given the county extension workers a greater opportunity to meet the needs of the people. County programs have grown and the people generally have been satisfied and willing to contribute tax dollars to them.

Extension and The Administrative Process

At the risk of oversimplication, the concept of administrative process here discussed is composed of a cycle of administrative activities, and the functions and environment of administration. Each of these broad phases of

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1/ Baker, Gladys. The County Agent. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press. 1939.

2/ Selsnick, Phillip. TVA and the Grass Roots. Berkeley: Univ. of Calif. Press. 1949.

3/ Kelsey, Lincoln D. and Cannon C. Hearne. Cooperative Extension Work. Ithaca, N. Y. Comstock Publishing Associates. 1955.

the concept will be discussed, and its component parts will be tied in with extension for the practical purpose of more deeply understanding extension's problems. 1/

Whether or not the entire administrative process is universal there are definite facets of administration that are widely applicable, although the process may have an infinitude of forms to meet a diversity of needs and variable conditions or organizations.

Problems that extension faces in administration fall generally into the categories of decision making, setting up guides to action, transmittal of guides for compliance, control, and reappraisal or evolution. Hence the process becomes a conceptual tool that enables one to examine critically the structure or framework of the extension organization, to look at each segment quantitatively and qualitatively in the light of their activities. Further examination allows one to synthesize the component parts by their function, and permits one to back away and see the total in calm and judicious perspective. Finally, as the result of such diagnosis, the dimensions of organization, its affairs and people, can be looked at as they apply to the extension environment.

Extension's Administrative Activities

When the question is asked, "Is extension standing still or moving forward?" what will our answer by? If our answer indicates it is moving forward, would we care to venture a statement as to whether the advance has come about by following the changes in the environment or by anticipating them? Let us examine the various activities in the administrative process, and see how they apply to extension.

Decision Making

In extension, the same as in any other type of organization, we try to make our decisions rational, deliberative, and discretionary. There are several factors operating that may prevent any or all of these objectives being met. Rational decisions may be prevented by the individual administrator himself, who because of his lack of self discipline and poor mental habits, finds it difficult or impossible to reach a decision. He may, therefore, depend on group decisions, which also have limitations such as the irrationality of its individuals, or their inability to agree among themselves, which makes it difficult to reach a clear cut decision. Another cause is the organization itself. Does the extension organization have a poor or inadequate authority structure? Are hurried snap judgments always or often necessary? Are our decisions always rational? Are we making certain decisions only for their impact on legislative bodies for appropriation of funds?

1/ The "process" here used is adapted from "Notes on a General Theory of Administration," by Edward H. Litchfield. Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. I, No. 1. June 1956.

Prevention of discretionary decisions may be caused by the type of organization, in which discretion is removed, or where time is of such essence that there is in effect no choice. While we assume the administrator's decisions are deliberate, it is true very often that they are made involuntarily with little or no opportunity for deliberation. Another limitation in obtaining an effective decision is that the administrator may find it impossible to keep all variations and alternatives in mind during the decision process. Still another limitation: the administrator cannot anticipate all the events that may transpire.

In any case, decision making has several steps, which if the administrator has opportunity to follow, will help him obtain rational decisions. These steps are:

Definition of the occasion. Here a diagnosis is made to determine the fundamental issue that the decision concerns.

Analysis of the situation. This is a bringing together of all available facts, and remembering that the analysis is the means not the end. It takes a strong administrator to make decisions when all the facts are not known. In extension, conditions are always rapidly changing so that the facts are rarely constant long enough for one to know them. Here the administrator needs a resolute and long practiced self discipline to make decisions. Extension executives have, or can have, advisory committees to help in a wider, more complete analysis of the situation.

Calculation of the alternatives. In extension there are many variables that effect decision making. Each possible decision should be examined in the light of its effect on other administrators, its effects on the immediate short term goals, and its effects on the long term objectives of the extension service.

The deliberative process. All available facts and alternative decisions should be fully considered and evaluated to avoid snap judgments. One great advantage of a director's staff is its assistance in broadening and increasing the deliberation by others experienced in the extension field. In the same way all workers of the entire extension organization can aid in the deliberation of decisions. In this way extension's decisions can be organization wide rather than coming from one man. However, the wise executive will recognize that the ideas of all workers should not be given the same weight. Newer workers might be young and inexperienced, older ones might be set in their ways or embittered. The questions of whom to rely upon and how much need careful thought so that the administrator can avoid a stereotyped dogmatic approach at the one extreme and a too flexible wishy-washy approach at the other.

Choice of decision. It rarely occurs that a choice is the one way the administrator must choose from several alternatives, all of which are plausible. He should, then, realize that because of essential plurality of truth, the choice of one alternative should not be considered as the final irrevocable answer. But he should know in his own mind and have concurrence from his staff, that the decision chosen is the best possible

for conditions as they are currently known and understood, and yet leave the door open for future changes when conditions warrant them. Acceptance, on the part of extension decision makers, of the plurality of courses, would reduce nervous tension in the top levels.

It was Dubin 4/ who gave us a clear concept of organization fictions, and how they help the administrator and the remainder of the organization perform many of the phases of the decision process. The administrator strives for logical, rational, unsentimental decisions, carried out in a framework of rules, policies, regulations, procedures, and sanctions. But because systems depending on human behavior cannot be fully stabilized, gaps appear in the organizational standards. Dubin continues "...where voids exist... there is a strain toward creating guides for behavior that will fill the voids. These creations are the organization fictions." In describing that many kinds of fictions that exist, knowingly or unknowingly, on the part of the members of an organization, Dubin says, "An executive may be incapable of filling his job adequately. ....There is likely to grow up around him a relationship with the other members.... in which people behave toward him to his face as though he were competent in his office. The organization is less likely to be harmed if all those who have official relationships with the executive behave toward him as though he were capable, regardless of their private opinion of him."

Decisions of extension administrators, if we accept Simon's 5/ viewpoint, are apt to be compromises made between the various opposing forces operating in extension. This is especially true when decisions must be made in areas having several simultaneous activities, and compromise in inescapable as efforts are made to find a common denominator. Taking the broadest possible point of view, Simon maintains that all decisions are compromises in one way or another.

Barnard 6/ states that organizational decisions that represent a consensus of opinion are usually logical because they are formulated, at least to some degree. At the same time individual decisions are mostly nonlogical because they are generally not formulated, and are apt to be more responsive, that is, automatic, unconscious. When, however, the lone individual makes organizational decisions, he strives, through processive thought, to make decisions impersonal and organizational in intent and effect.

Setting Up Guides to Action

After a decision has been made or a policy adopted it is the responsibility of the administrators to establish a clear cut procedure or

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4/ Dubin, Robert. Human Relations in Administration. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1951.

5/ Simon, Herbert A. Administrative Behavior. New York: Macmillan Company. 1954.

6/ Barnard, Chester I. The Functions of the Executive. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press. 1946.

guides in order to accomplish the ends or objectives required by the decision. Implementation of the decision is an important operation. In extension this is generally weak. Many a decision made by extension administrators after careful deliberation has been reduced to a memorandum. There it dies for lack of even the simplest form of interpretation into guides for action.

In setting up guides for action it is necessary that we consider some of the details of the process. The literature is full of methods descriptions such as single vs. standing plans (Newman 7/), and the indirect approach of strategy (Liddel-Hart 8/). However, the characteristics of a good plan of setting up guides for action are developed by Urwick. 9/ According to him, "....a good plan is (1) simple, (2) based on a clearly defined objective, (3) provides for a proper analysis and classification of actions; that is it establishes standards, (4) flexible, (5) balanced, and (6) that it uses available resources to the utmost before creating new authorities and new resources."

Transmittal of Guides for Compliance

After the decision is made and implemented, it then must be communicated to those it affects. But communication must accomplish more than mere transmission, it must provide the stimulus to influence people's behavior. It must induce people to see the decision, or the part of it that pertains to them, as a need, and interest them in doing their part to make it a success. Transmission and communication must establish channels between members within the organization and between the organization and the environment. Communication provides the means of feedback of information allowing greater coordination between different levels of extension, and permits modification of ideas and policies before the system becomes stereotyped.

Transmittal of guides can be of two types: formal and informal. For the most part the media of formal communication in extension are written documents, progressing from letters and memoranda, through records and reports, to organizational manuals covering practices and procedure. To some extent oral communication may be formal but it is primarily between individuals and their immediate superiors or subordinates. Proximity of offices determines to a great extent the frequency of interaction by oral communication. Where any distance is involved written media are regularly used, although a telephone conversation may sometimes be made, in which case the written communication may follow as confirmation or for "the record."

A system of informal transmission of guides to action will always supplement the formal type. Built around the social relations found in

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7/ Newman, William H. Administrative Action. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1951.

8/ Liddell-Hart, B. H. Strategy. New York: Frederick A. Praeger. 1954.

9/ Urwick, L. The Elements of Administration. New York: Harper & Bros. Publishers. 1944.

the extension organization, the informal system may take the form of friendship between two people as they frequently "talk shop," or of cliques that have little to do with the organization chart. Other informal examples are gossip and the grapevine. Although these latter forms may indicate true feelings and serve as a barometer of the opinions currently held by members of the organization, still they often spread and distort confidential material and may discourage frankness among members as they fear their remarks will be broadcast.

Ordinarily, communication channels are set up to function downward without much difficulty. Information upward is quite different, and does not occur automatically. Simon 10/, in elaborating on upward transmission of information, sets three determinants that must be met before it will occur. These are, according to Simon, "....(1) that the information transmitted will not have unpleasant consequences for the transmitter, (2) that the superior will hear of it anyway from other sources and it is better to tell him first, and (3) that it is information the superior needs and will be displeased if he is caught without it."

In extension it is important that all extension workers have (and know that they have) a direct line of access to the top administrative people. The director and his staff should make it completely understood that the door is always open on matters that could affect the success of any phase of the extension program.

Communication in extension also has another meaning apart from its use in transmitting administrative matters. This is communications in carrying out the educational responsibilities. Communication thus has become a tool of extension program building, used to effectuate the program and to provide the means by which it may be evaluated constantly to fit new conditions, new ideas, new needs, and new interests.

Control

After the pattern has been established, the extension administrator needs to have some assurance of conformance. In its broadest sense control is an act designed to insure performance in terms of special standards. Standards may be set by the administrator or by the organization within which it functions. Controls may be in evidence by the motivations and responses of members of the organization in such specific terms as recognition, pride in accomplishment, titles, group acceptance, and the process of rewards and withdrawal of privileges. Formal control in extension many times is difficult because its workers are self reliant, independent, and work in comparative freedom, often will give considerable resistance to change and new ideas when they are made in the form of orders. However, extension workers are noted for their response when they are drawn into the decision process, giving them a feeling of greater participation, and increasing their sense of professional accomplishment, as well as a feeling of greater security. Inservice training can have an important function in developing the individual's attitude toward his work. The fact that some workers fail may be at least partly explained that they were never told they were making mistakes or doing a good job.

10/ Simon. Op. Cit.

In the commonly used administrative sense, control in the extension service is at a minimum. But viewed in the total environment, professional controls are very effective. Each worker has his own code of ethics, his self control without strict supervision. His personal objectives of achievement and doing the job right exert control on the extension worker. In other words, even though he is working in comparative freedom from interference from above, each worker's own professional and ethical standards become his control. Extension's educational goals, broadly speaking, and personal objectives of the extension worker in his teaching techniques become other forms of control. Each year the worker and his people build their extension program step by step based on the needs and wants of the people. At the end of each year the worker reviews his progress, doing so in an annual report. He describes his achievements and lack of achievement. The annual report, then while it is an intimate segment of establishing guides to action and evaluation, becomes useful as a means of control. Yet, proper personnel management requires that extension workers should have both their shortcomings and their merits pointed out to them in a systematic way.

Dahl and Lindblom 11/ describe four basic control techniques. They are, (1) spontaneous control -- those self imposed in our relations with colleagues, superiors, neighbors, even family members -- they are intimately tied up with friendship and enmity, affection and hostility, respect and contempt, love and hate. (2) Manipulated control -- in which deliberate action is taken by one individual to manipulate rewards, gratifications, and deprivations so as to generate a response to secure rewards and avoid deprivations, which often stimulates in the manipulated individual feelings of "free choice" and thus wins enthusiasm and initiative. (3) Command -- which is an order that carries a threat of deprivation if it is not obeyed, but because of inherent frustration cannot achieve respect, friendship, dignity, or love, and if carried too far would threaten social stability. (4) Reciprocity -- the most universal form in which control is bilateral with two or more persons controlling one another through spontaneous, command, or manipulation techniques.

Baranrd 12/ connects authority with control and ties into the individual subject to control, that his assent to control is evidenced through his acceptance of communication. Barnard sets the following conditions which must all be met simultaneously: "....(a) the person can and does understand the communication; (b) at the time....he believes that it is not inconsistent with the purpose of the organization; (c) at the time.... he believes it to be compatable with his personal interest as a whole; and (d) he is mentally and physically able to comply with it."

Still another view on control was given us by Mary Parker Follett

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11/ Dahl, Robert A. and Charles E. Lindblom. _Political Economics and Warfare_. New York: Harper & Bros., Publishers. 1953.

12/ Barnard. _Op. Cit._

and presented by Metcalf and Urwick 13/. In a paper presented in 1925, Miss Follett stressed that orders should be depersonalized so that the law of the situation gives the orders, rather than the supervisor giving the order. Said Miss Follett: "With is a pretty good preposition, not because it connotes democracy but because it connotes unity. .... It is all right to work 'with' anyone; what is disagreeable is to feel too distinctly that you are working 'under' anyone." She cites the case of the small boy, whenever told by his mother "Go get a pail of water," always replied "I won't," but then takes the pail and brings the water. Thus the boy, realizing that water was needed, obeyed the situation rather than his mother's order. In extension, having people work with us rather than for us will do a great deal toward unification of purpose and integration of our efforts. Extension could do well by adapting the maxim, "Let the situation give the orders and the administrators provide the guidance."

Reappraisal or evaluation

Evaluation is the key to the concept of administrative process. In its broadest sense, evaluation injects life into the organization skeleton, gives it flexibility to absorb changes and make adjustments. It is necessary because of the imperfections of our decisions, or as Weiner 14/ says because of our contingency toward organic incompleteness. Weiner goes on to describe a system of built-in evaluation, a term he uses to mean feedback that is distinguished between expected accomplishment and actual accomplishment. Weiner also generalizes on the inhuman use of human beings. This is the use that demands less of a human being and less is attributed to him than his full status. This is not only a degredation, Weiner feels, but is a waste of human resources. It is simpler to utilize individual humans for a trivial fraction of their worth than it is to provide for use of their full capabilities. Effective use of evaluation reduces the inhuman use and waste of the talents of other humans.

In evaluation, we should consider these factors: who or what is being evaluated, what are the criteria, and how are the criteria applied? Our evaluation should include not only the extension organization, but the people in it and their contributions to its success. Besides the usual criteria of personal attributes used in measuring an extension's employee and his fitness for his work, are such intangibles as productivity, leadership abilities, and his attitude. All of these can be applied to the extension organization as well, adding such attributes as personnel training and the balance of short term goals with long range objectives.

Obtaining information on an organization's performance is not easy but it is definitely needed. Because accomplishments of extension

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13/ Metcalf, Henry C. and L. Urwick. Dynamic Administration -- The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett. New York: Harper & Bros. Publishers. 1940.

14/ Weiner, Norbert. The Human Use of Human Beings--Cybernetics and Society. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1954.

sometimes defy specific analysis, perhaps we can use both quantitative factors such as are contained in extension's statistical reports, and qualitative factors such as public opinion of the service received and morale of the extension workers. Newman and Logan 15/ caution against the top executives relying too completely on quantitative reports coming up through the organization. There is, they say, "....a natural tendency to report the good and conceal the bad; two or three such screenings of facts done successively produce a distorted picture. The result is executive isolation." Thus, unless the top extension administrators devise ways to carry out firsthand some of the principles of evaluation, they will not only wind up on a lofty pinnacle isolated from the organization but they will also fail in giving the organization full benefit of the evaluation technique.

Most extension administrators do not realize the full importance of evaluation and its impact on the progress of their service. Unfortunately, evaluation is not the most obvious of administrative functions. It is often put aside and the more immediately urgent phases get all the administrator's attention, as he might well say, "I can't be bothered by that; I've got a job to do." The term "evaluation" has been bandied about so much in extension circles that it has become a poor substitute for its real value and purpose. When those persons in top extension position make such statements as, "....evaluation....the interpretation of what has been acomplished in relation to what was attempted, provides the only basis for intelligent human action...." it is time for education in evaluation.

Evaluation engenders all that, but should strive for constant perfection of imperfect decisions, the plurality of truth, and the making of new and revising old policies in resource management and policy execution. Although the original decision was the best possible at the time it was made, new developments, new material, new conditions, and the role of time itself, may make it necessary to reconsider. Evaluation puts into the organization the results of the organization's experiences. And last, evaluation can function even though administrators may come and go. It establishes the system of feedback that outlasts transient administrators.

Effects of Extension Environment on Its Workers

Extension workers are characterized as having a passion for achievement. They have accepted positions that in most cases pay less than that paid by industry for positions that have far less responsibility. Extension work becomes a way of life rather than a job. The extension person finds that his professional work has its own type of gratification and self satisfaction, that in the main comes from two sources. The first source is from the public: the men, women, and families with whom he works, who keep

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15/ Newman, William H. and James P. Logan. Management of Expanding Enterprises. New York: Columbia University Press. 1955.

the worker satisfied because his efforts are appreciated, his position respected, and he has assumed the responsibilities that come with being accepted as a natural catalyst in the community. These situations are of course truer for the local extension workers than for specialists and other workers of higher levels. The second source of professional satisfaction is through communication from and to state leaders, associate directors, and the director. This source always has great possibilities, but since the organization is highly decentralized, it is not always used most effectively as a reliable source of recognition of efforts and achievements. The local worker, then, has a tendency, perforce, to seek his job satisfaction from the public with whom he works.

Extension work, as far as the individual dimension is concerned, provides the worker with security and freedom of action, in a milieu of public relations. This in turn partly encourages his love of work, but his love of work is mainly because of the responsive nature of the field in which he operates. Because of the direct tie in with the people, the worker is prevented from getting into a repetitive rut. He knows the success of his program depends upon himself and his efforts. A local extension worker is usually not the type that checks in at morning by punching a timeclock, to do a certain specified number of acts or spend a certain number of hours, and then check out at night. He arrives at work in the morning, meets a myriad of problems during the day, talks with farmers, homeowners, housewives, and a host of others, always himself gaining from each experience and always giving in the direction required. At night he may attend one of a dozen different kinds of meetings -- association, district, crop speciality, market commodity, and many others -- giving of himself freely and thereby growing in stature. His job accomplishments are of two kinds, extension and personal. In this light they are technical or nontechnical, specific or nonspecific, businesslike or sympathetic, measurable or intangible. After a few years in a community, the local extension worker has to his credit not only extension achievements, but social accomplishments as well.

Extension administrators realize that their workers, and even themselves, need to have certain types of refresher courses in order to keep up to date in their fields. These come under two types, the formal and the informal. One of the most beneficial programs anywhere is the sabbatical leave system that many of our state colleges and universities have for their educators. Through it, the extension workers as well as the other teachers, may use the leave for a means of continuing their specialized courses of study, to complete requirements for the master's and higher degrees. In addition there are many short courses held each year in regional locations throughout the United States so that extension workers may find it easier to attend. Numerous scholarships and fellowships are offered the extension workers, to help pay part or all of the expense involved.

At various state offices other short courses are held, to which workers are called in on full salary and expense-paid travel and subsistence to attend and thereby receive the latest information in certain specified fields. Other more limited courses or training sessions are

held frequently where the extension workers receive practical how-to-do-it instruction in certain phases of the work. 16/

All extension workers are thus assured a continual academic growth, most of which the worker himself decides, after careful self analysis, as to whether or not he wishes to participate.

Other forms of self improvement are more informal, and are continually being employed by the academic worker. These are reading, observing, and of course his day-to-day experiences, all of which add something worthwhile to his development.

Final Statement

One of the strongest points of extension administration is the lack of cleavage in it. The more class differences that are made among personnel along lines of rank, authority, and prestige, the greater becomes the possibilities for splits and ever-widening gaps of disagreements. The fact that extension operates without hard and set distinctions between its members has given it much of its strength. The statement, "One big, happy family," so often applied to extension services, would not be earned if this principle had not been followed.

16/ For a full description of inservice training, the reader is referred to the article "Inservice Training for County Agricultural Agents, New York State Extension Service," in Improving Personnel Training in Rural Development. Comparative Extension Publications, Mimeo Release No. 2, Cornell University. July 1960.

EVALUATION OF FIELD STAFF BY THEIR ADMINISTRATORS

by

Evelyn Wood
Bombay, India

Choosing from candidates has always puzzled administrators. Scientific methods don't always seem to work. When the score card system is used to judge a dozen different characteristics, if often conflicts with the more general impressions of experienced people.

Sometimes the total marks of qualities listed to be scored adds to 100 percent (for perfection); and each item is thus given a maximum number, in relation to the proportion in which each quality is needed. In this way, candidate A may score a total of 40, while B scores 60, after taking averages of the selection team's individual marking. Yet the majority opinion is that A is a better man than B. Grading of each item expressed without figures, e.g., a series A, B, C .. for each quality often agrees better with general impressions, but the results are hard to read and compare between candidates. Similar problems come up in periodical evaluation made of men in service.

This paper is a layman's attempt to use a trick invented by a major scientist. Dr. Sheldon's work need not be read to learn this trick. Briefly, he pointed out that people are too complex for their qualities to fit into any continuous scale of measurement. He therefore worked out three centers around which to form principal types, instead of two extremes. In this way the complex human can then be seen from three angles at the same time. Misleading continuity is partly corrected by this method.

The most important of Dr. Sheldon's ideas to laymen is that there is no "natural" dividing line between one type and another. He felt, however, that more than three centers of attention would produce classifications that only methematicians could read. Therefore he said, although a much larger number of centers would have gotten closer to scientific reality, he would stick to three, knowing this number to be imperfect. He was insistent that experienced doctors, who were only pragmatic scientists and not mathematicians, should be able to read off the values of his new types easily. His system has enabled complete laymen like the writer to see how human types can be compared, and how common subjective judgments can be expressed as groups of figures, which prove to be roughly reliable and are easily recalled. The paper is intended to help experienced judges to rearrange their impressions in records which have a common meeting.

The judges must work as a team, and this paper is for use as a source and perhaps a guide to discussions between them. It should at least set the exceptionally patient judges thinking afresh about their own valuing skills.

A team of such experienced administrators should easily agree, by discussion, on a short list of desired qualities, with relative values assigned to each item. Such an agreed list would then serve as a common model of the type of staff to be engaged and built up. Probably only quite minor adjustments in the lists would be needed after the first round of staff evaluations has been made by each member of the team of judges.

The PHYSICAL characteristic is separated because it is the foundation of all the others, in staff which is constantly on the move. The other essential divisions are CAPACITY and ABILITY. As judgment moves from an estimate of what the men will become, through training and field practice, towards his PERFORMANCE the same list may possibly be applied with different emphases. A few qualities may have to change.

The author would like to apologize for the length and complexity of the attached paper. Human beings are, however, not simple. Laymen who want to judge their staff fairly and thoroughly cannot be objective. They can, however, organize their subjective impressions by joint model making. This process must insure, preferably once and for all, that none of the organization's requirements is left out of the desired characteristics. Every member of a team of judges must have a personal bias, this process can help to control it. It should not be necessary to refer to the source paper at all, after the first, thorough team discussions which produces the simplified model.

Any corrections or other improvements which experienced administrators can suggest will be welcomed by the writer. Finally, profuse apology is due by him to psychologists and persons more experienced in making such judgments. The writer specializes in communications, and is very conscious of his amateur status in this field of human evaluation.

Suggested Source Material (Condensed for the Construction of Evaluative Check Lists)

Very large numbers of personnel are today engaged in the development of rural India. Many kinds of organization, with different aims, employ such staff. The demand for persons who are suitable to work with village people in the process of rural transformation, which is now a national aim, backed by all the resources of government, greatly exceeds the supply. All the devices of recruitment and training educated people have so far failed to get adequate staffing of development work in the quarter-million villages which are supposed to be reached to date.

The present paper is a first effort toward constructing instruments which will strengthen the hands of the principal administrators in organizations devoted to rural development here. Recruitment and training of staff could obviously be much improved if there were better means of evaluating the quality of the trainees.

Any such eveluation must, of course, continue when the field staff engaged in rural development are in position. The principle of inservice training has been accepted; along with this system, progressive evaluation of its results is essential.

The produce of a sound evaluation process could thus be a steady improvement in the effectiveness of the field workers. It goes without saying that any such evaluation must be made in complete concert with all the staff who are tested by an instrument of this kind. It is hoped that this paper may offer the material from which several such evaluative instruments can be constructed each for different kinds of rural field worker, and at different stages of his (or her) evolution.

A Perspective View of Rural Development in India

The situation today results from the fact that every kind of organization which is concerned with rural development has greatly expanded since 1947. Each of these development agencies consequently competes with the others for suitable recruits. Persons who prove unsuitable to one organization may be right for another, which either works toward different objectives or employs rather different methods. A backward glance at the road by which the present situation has been reached is therefore necessary. Probably the earliest organizations to undertake work in the villages were some of the old established business houses. In the 19th century, and earlier, their operations could seldom have been called constructive rural development; rather they were exploitative, and often destructively so, from the viewpoint of the village folk. Yet such commercial organizations can claim historical priority in the efforts of people outside the villages to cause changes in the peasant societies in India.

Throughout the world, during the 20th century, the practice of constructive development has slowly grown as a result of a more expansive "social conscience," and with the broadened scope of government activities. Commercial organizations have gradually assumed more social responsibility, in parallel with the expansion of government's care of the "have nots." It took the vision of an occasional genius, like Jamshedji Tata, to lead the way to this stage in India.

The creation of a huge industrial center in the countryside was, however, only one aspect of rural development. During the same period, the service of minute fractions of India's half-million villages was first undertaken by Christian missionaries. During this century, conversion of village people ceased to be a constant and immediate aim within such rural missionary work, improvement of life in the villages, assumed much greater importance.

Finally, the national movement for independence took the constructive form of rural development. Under Gandhiji's moulding of the Indian National Congress, the improvement of life in the villages became a major aim of that party, which now holds political power.

The honor of initiating the first all-round application of extension methods in Indian villages through a government organization falls to an American, Albert Mayer. His example at Etawah seems to have been necessary for two main reasons. The organizations for village reconstruction which had grown up within the Indian National Congress seemed to have lost the clearness of their aim, after independence. They were imbued with ideals which looked rather diverse and impractical in the context of scientific economic planning by the central government. The methods of working with village people which had been used by nationalist organizations were also rather unsuitable for planned economic and other technical development work.

To a large extent, therefore, when the official NES (National Extension Service) was started in 1952-53, it had to draw upon the analogous experience of foreigners in developing the rural areas of other countries. The community development program in India surpasses in the breadth of its aims and subject matter, any scheme ever attempted on a large scale, anywhere in the world. The extensive objectives in India needed every known technique of working with rural people.

Besides the NES there are several semiofficial bodies active in rural development. Among these, the largest are the central and state social welfare boards, and the All-Indian Khadi and Village Industries Commission. These bodies aim at objectives in the development of villages which are less extensive than those of the NES. There are, besides, approximately 200 other organizations, privately financed, which are concerned with different fields of rural development. Some of these bodies are founded on missionary activities of several generations' standing. Others, which do not have the same advantages of long experience with village conditions in India, have been formed to put new techniques to work, more particularly in the spread of adult literacy, health education, and other specialized subjects. Several private agencies are supported by different educational foundations or endowments, some which are foreign and some Indian.

Many of the private agencies aim at development in a very broad field of subjects. Some almost equal the scope of the NES except for one subject; only the NES concerns itself with the structure of village self government.

Some of the large business houses have started general socio-economic development work in villages. For example, the Tata Rural Welfare Board has interests in South Maharashtra; and the associated cement companies run development organizations in the villages surrounding their factories. Finally, there are several commercial organizations which are now concerned to promote demand for their products or services from the rural areas. These organizations anticipate the expansion of a vast consumer market in the villages. They cannot make their way into such a market by conventional advertising media, and consequently they must use educational methods and personnel skilled in their use, in order to communicate with illiterate village folk.

Problems of Personnel Shortage

The bulk of the field staffs employed by the different organizations are seldom required to be technicians. There are of course demonstrators and servicemen for new techniques, such as pumping water by power. The command of technical skills and the ability to communicate them to villagers is not covered by the evaluation suggested in this paper, which deals with the general ability to communicate.

Such general abilities are required by propagandists and their supervisors; gram sevaks and sevikas, social education organizers, and adult literacy teachers; block level officers in the NES and the corresponding levels of field workers in the private, noncommercial development agencies. Some of the field workers live in the villages, and some of the superior cadre in the towns. All are, however, supposed to spend most of their time in the villages.

No matter what kind of organization employs him (or her), every rural field worker has certain fundamental duties in common with all others. Persons who have been educated in the new ways of living and thinking which have been adopted by people in the cities of India are responsible to represent these new ways at their best, when they are working with village folk.

The manner of working with village folk by all field workers must be designed to help the emergence of groups which exercise reasoned choices, instead of being bound by unquestioned custom. Every educated person who works in rural development expects that village people will finally, of their own accord, make favorable changes in their ways of living and working. But everyone also recognizes that in order to make such changes, village people must be provided by others with educational aid and encouragement, so as to discover the resources which are available to them. Such unused resources are within the villages as well as outside them; they comprise knowledge, materials, and human skills and intelligence.

Every field worker, in whatever form of rural development organization, must set out to share knowledge with villagers. The good field worker invariably finds that he has more to learn from village people than he can teach them. He also begins to see his own small part in helping a few out of the 300 million to realize their energies, which have been ineffectively used for so many generations. In this view, broadened to take in the whole of village India, all field workers can share a common hope: that these millions will emerge from their medievalism into the modern world as a new and colossal social force.

Massive experience since 1952, and scattered experience, mostly by commercial and other nonofficial agencies during the previous quarter-century or more, have now accumulated to such an extent that it is possible to state what qualities a field worker in rural development must possess. The next necessity is to work out some form of analytical evaluation according to which the optimum qualities of field workers may be assessed. Such evaluation can only be regarded as applicable to progressive improvement of the assessee's qualities in extension work, including

his ability to fit into an analyzed abstract of the matter which is common to all such organized rural development work, so that evaluation check lists for personnel at different levels of responsibility may be constructed with direct reference to agreed, common requirements.

Scope for Evaluation of Personnel

Whatever be the individual quality under evaluation, a single numerical scale will be an advantage to classification. This scale is adapted from Sheldon 1/ and may be set up to establish one index figure for each of the qualities under assessment. Thus, while Sheldon's valuations are expressed in three-digit groups, since they cover three basic concepts of reference, the rural staff evaluation scales now suggested will run into 60-digit groups for the basic qualities.

With suitable weightages, these unwieldy groups can be split into threes or fours and recombined to yield a five-figure expression for each person whose qualities are being assessed.

The system in respect of each basic group will be as follows:

Index Figure	Assessor's Judgment of the Assessee's Present Quality (capacity, ability, or disposition)	
0	bad, and not capable of improvement through any reasonable efforts on his own and others' part.	
1	bad	These valuations are understood as comparative with the assessee's colleagues of the same status in service. In every case, improvement is considered to be a possibility, attainable by reasonable efforts on the part of the assessee, and his colleagues or trainers.
2	poor	
3	average	
4	good	
5	excellent	

The unusual cases where the assessee is not considered capable of improvement may be indicated by adding s (= static) to the index figure. Thus an "average" man, not expected to change at all, would be indexed as 3s.

Construction of Check-Lists

At the time of his recruitment, every person to be evaluated presents an individual assembly of qualities. Only a few of the physical

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1/ Sheldon, W. A. et al. The Varieties of Human Physique. Harper, 1940. pp. 347. The Varieties of Temperament. Harper, 1945. pp. 520.

characteristics show what the person was born with; all of her (her) other qualities have been modified by experience since birth. Education is one such series of experiences which produce changes; and of course the processes of further training and also the work which is undertaken, will produce further change.

It is this dynamic pattern which has to be analyzed, as it alters. The process of evaluating personal qualities must therefore consist of a series of, as it were, snapshots of a total pattern. Each view at a successive period of the person's service, beginning with shortly after recruitment, will show some qualities improved and others degraded. Good training and other service conditions should cause the latter to become fewer and fewer.

Only those characteristics which are desirable for the work are to be evaluated as qualities. Other counterbalancing characteristics, which would be considered as defects for the purposes of his job, are not directly considered.

It is difficult enough to see a total pattern of such qualities clearly at any one examination. Any judgment of the changing fabric of the person's capacities, abilities, and attainments would be literally impossible without a single analytic procedure, which must be applied with a minimum of variations on each occasion of evaluation. The technique which suggests itself to the writer is to start with the most that one can want to know about the assessee's qualities, and to reduce that necessarily unwieldly assembly of ideal qualities to more practical proportions, for successive reference and comparison.

The resynthesis which such a reduction will involve need not necessarily recreate the initial categories of the first analysis. Such a first analysis is suggested as follows:

Principal Categories of First Analysis

Since none of the qualities is to be assessed by scientists, but only by lay administrators, the categorization is simplified accordingly:

1. The person's pattern of BASIC QUALITIES, as they appear at the time of recruitment, before any knowledge of the job is acquired:

(a) Basic Endowments (after the modifications of experience)
- (i) Physiological
- (ii) Psychological

(b) Basic Capacities and Abilities for
- (i) Knowledge (mental storage and skills)
- (ii) Skills (of physical performance)

(c) Behavior Characteristics

The separation of (c) from (a) (ii) may seem to be particularly unscientific, since it is from behavior that a person's psychological endowments are deduced. Nevertheless, the details given in subsequent pages will probably make it clear why the division is made -- mainly for convenience of observation.

2. The person's attainment of the required forms of ABILITY FOR THE JOB: By the end of the initial training period, this analysis can only be a forecast. It should present a slightly simpler pattern, since it is the analysis which will be repeated most frequently.

(a) <u>Behavior</u> on the job, as experienced or anticipated

Category 1 (c) can do little more than prepare for the considerations of 2 (a)

(b) <u>Skills</u> -- which now become the specific performance, based on the general abilities indicated in 1 (b) (ii)

(c) <u>Knowledge</u>. This category becomes much simpler than 1 (b) (i); because it only requires judgment of the assessee's grip on the mental aspects of his (her) work, and of his (her) cultivated ability both to use the knowledge obtained, and to acquire more, as necessary.

Structuring the Analysis

The assessee's qualities are first to be examined according to the selection of general forms which is chosen as necessary for organized fieldwork with Indian villagers. Their outline is already stated in category 1 above.

I. <u>Basic Endowments</u>

A. PHYSICAL

1. Toughness (strong body fabric)
2. Muscular strength
3. Energy (output of vitality)
4. Endurance (capacity of nervous system)
5. Quick to move (fast reactions, speedy walker)
6. Sharp eyesight (if necessary with aids)
7. Sharp hearing (if necessary with aids)

For combination with the less measurable qualities, these may have to be valued according to one single consideration:

How fit does the person keep with heavy touring and other exertion (such as walking and cycling), and when it is necessary to work long hours for months at a time?	(0	health won't stand the strain
	(1	gets exhausted often
	(2	sometimes tired
	(3	seldom either tired or lively
	(4	lively -- bright
	(5	always full of life

B. PSYCHOLOGICAL

An attempt is made in this listing to avoid the well worn tracks of the specialists in psychological measurement, by not using the common terms, e.g. "intelligence," "personality," "emotion." Nevertheless, the lay assessor is sure to link his ideas about these factors with those indicated below. The distinctions between categories 1 and 2 below are quite arbitrary.

1. Personal

(a) sensitive (capacity for receiving impressions)
(b) Observant (when sensitivity is used as a tool)
(c) Good listener (not only to others' talk)
(d) Steady (the opposites are unstable, unreliable)
(e) Open minded (objectivity, by putting aside personal predilections)
(f) Curious(more than readiness to be interested)
(g) Reflective (thinks things over -- more profoundly)
(h) Analytical (sees experience naturally as the sum of parts)
(i) Logical (guided by reason rather than impulse)
(j) Good memory
(k) Thorough
(l) Quick to understand
(m) Persistent (or persevering)

2. Social

(a) Tolerant (avoids challenging others' beliefs, opinions)
(b) Considerate (thinks about others' convenience)
(c) Faithful (loyal in its pure sense -- trustworthy)
(d) Patient (suffers fools and frustrations gladly)
(e) Good Organizer
(f) Good collaborator (cooperative and helpful)
(g) Modest (suppresses self importance,hence learns from others)
(h) Friendly (good mixer, among people with unfamiliar ways)
(i) Kindly (tries to see the best side of people)
(j) Truthful (includes honesty in all its forms)
(k) Tactful (the verbal aspect of consideration)
(l) Generous (disposed to share with others, whether it be power, knowledge, or material goods)

All the qualities of a person's nature and mind cannot be adequately expressed by a string of adjectives. Every assessor will make individual use of any adjective, and there must be a team of persons to do the evaluating, where the number of assessees is so large or their positioning in the field is so scattered that one administrator cannot assess all his field workers. The team of evaluators must meet from time to time and arrive at common meanings which they all agree to attach to the adjectives to be used as foci of assessment.

Every evaluator must bear in mind that psychological qualities can only be judged by the assessee's behavior. Consequently the separation of the above two lists from Section III is arbitrary.

II. Basic Capacities & Abilities

A. FOR KNOWLEDGE (mental skills)

1. Retention and recall (memory)

2. Ability to acquire information and/or mental skills from

   (a) other persons of wider experience and better mental equipment
   (b) impersonal communications (print, film, radio, etc.)
   (c) Other persons of narrower experience or less education (especially illiterate villagers)
   (d) original creative thinking by the assessee, based on (a), (b), (c), or other stimuli such as personal observations

3. Ability to process information and mental skills for practical purposes

   (a) by reference to alternative authorities
   (b) by analysis
   (c) by synthesis or resynthesis
   (d) by coordination with other items of knowledge

4. Ability to reproduce and transfer knowledge after processing and further simplifying (if necessary)

   (a) in communication with people of same or higher mental attainment
   (b) in communication with people of lower attainments

B. FOR SKILLS (of physical performance)

1. Manual dexterity (e.g. in handling equipment)
2. Other physical coordination (e.g. driving a car)
3. Adaptability (involces recognition of similarities between a skill already known and one newly considered) of A 3
4. Retention and recall of method (remembering how to handle equipment and materials, after a period of no practice)
5. Ability to acquire the knack of doing things
6. Ability to communicate the knack to others

III. Behavior

The following items are treated as the practical expressions of the capacities analyzed as psychological basic endowments (I B, 1 & 2). The items should thus represent an attempt to value the assessee's attitudes

and relationships with his (her) environment -- including (but not exclusively) the people in it.

1. CAREFUL (responsible, not reckless)
2. ADVENTUROUS (especially readiness to experiment)
3. SIMPLE LIFE (habits of dress, food, personal arrangements)
4. GOOD MANNERS (correct forms of etiquette, not necessarily considerate
5. GIVE & TAKE (from recognition of others'values)
6. FEARLESS (especially in standing up for principles)
7. DECISION TAKING
8. IMPARTIAL (does not tend to join cliques or factions)
9. CONSISTENT (maintains own principles, sticks to plans)
10. DILIGENT (includes keenness for work, in action -- not talk)
11. KEEPS PROMISES (includes punctuality)
12. RESPECTFUL (not only to superiors, but equally to the lowliest of village people)

Any of the above schedules of qualities can be expanded or reduced by agreement between a team of evaluators. In fact the lists need not necessarily be used for scoring on the 0 or 1 to 5 scale. But the agreed lists must be considered by each evaluator before any scoring is done. The following indicates the most condensed schedule which is possible from the above considerations.

Condensing the Indices of Basic Qualities

For convenience of reference and comparison, it is necessary to alter the order of the above schedules before making a condensation. The condensation can be made by generalizing from the main headings in the schedules. In this case, direct indices of value will be assigned.

If, however, the condensation were to be made after scoring the above schedules for every quality throughout, a systematic processing would be required. Each of the three schedules I B, 1 & 2, II A & B, and III, needs to be reexamined. The evaluating team must decide if each of the qualities listed has equal value for the job which the assessee will do, or, if not, then what factors are required to convert any quality to an acceptable incidence, when considered together with the others. Thus weighted averages can be derived from the scored valuations.

Example from I B 1. Suppose there be a selection of four qualities only, the scores of which have to be combined. This example is chosen to show the simplicity of the calculation required, for a crude weighted average.

Let (b) "Steady" and (k) "Thorough", both be regarded as the highest (and equal) importance: (a) "sensitive," be regarded as half as important to the two first; and (h) "analytical" as only worth one tenth of their value. The respective indices of valuation are as indicated below, and these ratings, multiplied by weightage factors, produce the following:

(a) Sensitive:	Index 4 x	factor 5 =	20
(b) Steady:	" 2 x	" 10 =	20
(h) Analytical:	" 3 x	" 1 =	3
(k) Thorough:	" 1 x	" 10 =	10

Total of four factors = 26 & 53 of four products.

Therefore $\frac{53}{26}$ = weighted average (nearest) index = 2

Condensation of 60 Indices of Value Into A Series of 4 or 5. In order to form an instrument of practical evaluation for reference and comparison in time and between different assessees, groups of 5 or less digits are the maximum acceptable. Every list in the foregoing schedules has consequently to be reduced to a single index by calculating weighted averages, according to the above example.

Qualities of Basic Endowment. These must be regrouped while the average index values are computed; and the following re-ordering will be found convenient:

I B 1 -- Personal Psychology -- becomes BASIC MENTAL CAPACITIES & ABILITIES — PB (1)

I B 2 -- Social Psychology -- becomes BASIC ATTITUDES (mainly towards people) — PB (2)

III. Behavior -- becomes BEHAVIOR (towards things as well as people) — PB (3)

The three combined indices so calculated (or assigned directly) can then be employed as tripolar references in 3-digit groups, in the same way as Sheldon's groups for viscerotonia, somatotonia, and cerebrotonia.

The single index (combined or direct) for I A -- Physical -- must not be grouped with any others; it is conveniently used to demarcate the foregoing and the following groups: PHYSICAL CAPACITIES PhC.

Basic Capacities and Abilities for Knowledge and Skills could only be combined into a single figure index if one of the two major components, A or B could be considered to be of negligible importance. As it is extremely difficult to estimate the relative importance to the rural field worker of his (her) talent for acquiring and controlling mental skills on the one hand and physical skills on the other, a 2-digit group is strongly advised. It would be systematically constructed by calculating a weighted average of the two following series; if preferred, a direct assessment could be made, passing over the internal analysis:

II A -- Basic Capacity and Ability for Knowledge becomes: K C

II B -- Basic Capacity and Ability for Skills becomes: S C

Consequent Expression of All the Basic Qualities

Each field worker under evaluation can therefore be described for his value by a five figure expression: PB(1) - PB (2) - PB(3) x PhC x KC - SC. Translated into a concrete example, and taking the original order of evaluation, suppose a man of slightly less than average physique -- PhC = 2 -- proves to be mentally of the first order -- PB(1) = 5. But he finds it very difficult to get on with others -- PB(2) = 1. This difficulty he masters, so that his behavior is above average -- PB(3) = 3. His capacity for knowledge is not quite the highest -- KC = 4; and his skills are just below the average -- SC = 2. Such a man could be briefly referred to for value as: 5-1-3 x 2 x 4-2.

Evaluation in the Field

Every field worker should be evaluated again after he has been about four months on the job. In no case should this re-assessment be delayed for more than eight months after he has taken up a position in a rural circuit, after his training.

The instrument for basic evaluation applied during his training has been described in the foregoing pages; it need not be reapplied, in its entirety, during the first year of service in the field. Instead, a simpler instrument may be used to reconsider the BASIC QUALITIES of the assessee. The simplified instrument need only take the five condensed concepts headlined on page 32 to make a fresh estimate of the field worker's value in each of the five major summaries of his qualities.

If, in applying this simplified, direct assessment of the five generalized characteristics, a difference of more than two points degradation of value is found in any one, then a detailed revaluation of all the components to that one generalization will be necessary. However, the 1st evaluation in the field is principally required to assess PERFORMANCE.

It is necessary that the same person who made the initial assessment of the field worker's BASIC QUALITIES must also assess his (her) first PERFORMANCE. If a different evaluator is unavoidable, then a complete application of the whole instrument of BASIC EVALUATION will again have to be made, by the person who does the PERFORMANCE RATING.

The methods of applying the first performance rating are much the same as those for the initial basic evaluation. Both are the result of observations through which the subject is placed for different characteristics within a five-point scale of values. The basic evaluation is not usually made in the rural field; or, at any rate, the assessee is not charged with his duties in the villages where it is made. But the performance rating is made by observing the person on the job. Greater differences in the two assessments lie in what is expected of the subject under observation, and in the evidence available to the observer in the two situations. These differences may be broadly tabulated:

BASIC EVALUATION	PERFORMANCE RATING
tries to estimate how the subject will:	judges what the subject has so far done, in order to:
1. learn his (her) job	learn his (her) job, and carry out its responsibilities
2. deal with other people	build relationships with other people, and deal with fresh people
3. handle equipment	care for equipment, and use it properly
4. do paper work	cope promptly and thoroughly with paper work
5. learn about the field of his (her) work	understand and learn more facts about the field of his (her) work
6. learn the skills which he (she) must use	exercise the skills which he has to use

Although the differences are indicated in the above comparison in very broad terms, the performance rating must in fact be made by close observation of specific actions on the part of the subject.

Constructing an Instrument for Performance Rating. Every chief administrator of field staff working with village people must of course complete his own instrument of evaluation for performance. The skeleton (or proforma) of such an instrument is all that can be suggested in this paper. It will be noticed that qualities assessed together in segments of the basic evaluation must now appear in different associations when valuing performances.

For the conveniences of reference and comparison, an attempt is again made to limit the indices by which an assessee's performances are recorded, to a 3-digit group. A 5-digit group does not seem to offer any advantages. There is, however, no escape, in performance rating, from the need for detailed observation and assessment of all the characteristics listed in order to judge performance. Such individual values will be required so as to help the assessee to improve his (her) work.

Proforma For Performance Rating of Field Workers in Rural India

Each separate item (when the schedules are completed) is to be judged mainly by critical observation of the subject at work. He can thus be placed at one of the five points of the scale detailed on page 26. Beginning with the items grouped under single arabic figures (1, 2, 3,..),

weighted averages may then be made of subitems. Finally, the averaged figures for the groups under a single capital letter (A, B, C, ..) are to be combined in the same way, so as to get a single, weighted average for each of the groups under a roman figure (I, II, and III). Thus a 3-digit reference is obtained, to express each assessee's general performance.

I. Personal Relations (and Attitudes)

The items in this group are equivalent to the public relations of a corporate organization. Sometimes, however, they must be judged not by the results on other people, which are difficult to determine, but rather by the subject's attitude to other people.

A. Outside the Employers' Organization

A separate assessment is to be made of the subject's behavior with each of the following groups of contacts. The groups may be multiplied, they cannot be reduced in number. Groups 3 (a) and (b) may be used as alternatives.

1. Villagers. In considering this group, the subject's "silent attitude," expressed in his dress and demeanor must also be taken into account.

2. Authorities, especially officials, such as police, who are directly responsible for rural areas.

3. a. Specialists of any service which is charged with development in rural areas. For assessees not in the NES, this naturally includes the multipurpose worker of that service -- the gram sevak, since he is supposed to specialize in the affairs of a circle of villages assigned to him.

   b. Dealers in the products which are necessary to the promotion of change in the villages (e.g. pesticides where these are a necessary improvement in agricultural practice). If the assessee is a commercial propagandist, he must of course be judged for his relationships with the trade which can carry the product he is promoting.

4. All others whom the subject encounters as he travels. This general judgment is necessary to insure the good public relations of his service.

B. Within the Employers' Organization

This assessment, instead of being based on observation of the subject with groups of people, employs the inner needs of the organization as its criteria. The evaluator may take into account what other members of the organization say about their experience with the subject, particularly with regard to the following items:

1. Discipline. Judged by the subject's behavior

   (a) toward his superiors

   (b) toward his equals and subordinates

2. Responsibility. How far does the subject welcome the need to make decisions, by the evidence of his acts? E.g. if he takes a few days' leave, does he himself plan the continuation of his work while he is away?

3. Honesty. In reports and relationships as well as in the submission of correct accounts of expenses. Straightforwardness is also a factor in this item.

4. Precision. Punctuality, thoroughness, and the avoidance of reports which are exaggerated or insufficiently qualified where the facts recorded are uncertain.

5. Paperwork. Promptness, diligence, and skill in correspondence as well as in returning the routine reports and accounts.

6. Self Evaluation. This ability is evidenced by the fact of the subject himself sometimes making adverse criticism of his own performance, in regard to some detail.

II. Skills (both physical and mental)

Each of the major headings (A, B, C, D, E,) in this section will have to be expanded according to the requirements of the subject's particular service. Some of the headings may not be applicable.

A. Oral Communication with Villagers in Groups

1. With Audio-Visual aids to discussion. The manual dexterity of the assessee in handling materials and equipment must be judged as coordinated with his verbal skill and capacity to create audience participation. Every A-V medium with which the subject has to work may have to be separately assessed; e.g. his skill in handling a filmstrip projector. Further subitems (a), (b), etc. will be needed if he uses several media.

2. Without A-V aids. The subject's skill in getting groups of villagers to discuss a possible improvement, or to take part in a demonstration (e.g. a fertilizer experiment, lasting throughout a crop season), must be separately judged.

3. Command of spoken languages. Whichever the languages claimed by the subject, his command of them should be judged by the extent to which he gets good answers -- and better, argument

--from village people with whom he talks. A subitem (a,b, c, ..) is required for each major dialect in which the subject claims to converse fluently. His competence in this respect may be attested by other people besides the evaluator, though the liveliness of a discussion with villagers is usually a clear index of success even to an observer who has no idea of the language.

B. Method or Result Demonstations

The component of the assessee's skill to be judged here in his manual dexterity and other physical coordination in doing the demonstration. Every form of experiment which he has to show to village people must be separately valued. It may also be necessary to value separately his dexterity with each implement he is required to use in demonstrating. Each such item will be numbered in an arabic figured series (1, 2, 3, ..).

C. Ability to Choose a Site and Assemble a Group for A or B

D. Care Taken of Equipment or Materials Provided

It may be necessary to form subitems, separately numbered, under both headings C and D, insofar as the points of judgment relate to particular forms of communication indicated in A and B.

E. Transfer of Skills

Any of the skills which are considered in the foregoing items of this section may have to be communicated to others, either village people who are to carry on with an experimental demonstration, or trainees in the assessee's service.

The ability to teach others a skill seldom varies with the nature of the skill, but, if it be felt that separate assessment is required, then the further items in this section can be coded as EA -- referring only to communication skills, and so on. Obviously, there is no question of teaching a spoken language to anyone; but the assessee might have to show a trainee for his own service how to simplify his vocabulary so as to establish better exchange of ideas with village people.

III. Knowledge of the Field of Work

The field worker can of course be judged on his knowledge of the area which is specifically assigned for his operation. Separate evaluations should be made of his knowledge about conditions in the places he has visited, and about other places which he has not visited, but as regards which he is supposed to have collected secondhand data.

The subject's ways of obtaining information should be judged for the efficiency of the methods he employs. This judgment is more important on a first performance rating than that which assesses the value of the data collected.

A. Customs and Values of Village People

The practices of villagers which the subject's organization seeks to change are first to be known. Finally the social relationships which can encourage or inhibit the changes must be known -- even including the religious sanctions involved.

It is suggested that, for a first performance rating, a very broad assessment is all that can be done:

1. Field worker's interest in and sympathy for village ways.

2. How much he has learned directly from village people, and how much at secondhand, from other informants.

3. Whether methods he uses to get the information are consistently applied by him.

B. Data on Village People's Gatherings or Groups

This item will have to be greatly expanded; but for the first performance rating, two broad criteria are suggested:

1. Sufficiency of sources explored to get the data, and other methods employed by the subject

2. Adequacy of detail collected, with a view to planning future activities, with economy of time and transportation

C. Data on the Activities of Other Organizations Promoting Change

The field worker cannot confine his knowledge of development in the rural area assigned to him to what his own organization is doing. His knowledge of other activities must comprise the following, and be judged separately for each item.

1. Mass Communications. Knowledge of the influence of the press, cinema, and radio. The field worker may be required to know which are the leading newspapers or other periodicals; the principal cinema houses (or other opportunities for villagers to see films); and which radio programs are listened to by villagers. There may be other mass communication in his area; if so, he must have some knowledge of villagers' liking for them.

   For a first performance rating it is enough to judge two broad criteria:

   (a) How far the subject is aware of different media of mass communication in his area?

   (b) What are his methods of finding out more about them, particularly when they may compete with him for the

interest of village people; or provide him with further opportunities for assembling groups of villagers suitable to his own promotions.

2. Specialized institutions for research into village problems. The field worker must know, sooner or later, what research organizations are seeking solutions to village problems, both within his area and adjacent to it. Such institutions may be concerned with health, agriculture, or the social sciences. All that is required for a first performance rating is evidence that the assessee is aware that other people have the answers to some village problems, and that he has some interest in getting to know what the research institutions have to offer.

3. Supply Line. For a commercial propagandist, knowledge of the channels of trade in the product he is promoting is of paramount importance. All field workers in rural areas must secure knowledge of the means of supply for products that are essential to the changes with which villagers have decided to experiment.

A single judgment should suffice for the first performance rating of a noncommercial worker; but a commercial propagandist will require one further item to be judged:

(a) How products newly demanded by villages reach them?

(b) The means by which villagers can buy the product promoted; and how the supply points indicated by that knowledge are fed with adequate stocks of that product.

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Mimeo Release Number	Title	Date Issued
1	Establishing a Young Extension Service	Jul 1959
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4	Youth Work in Rural Development	Jan 1961
5	Extension Evaluation in a Foreign Culture -- Some Important Factors to Guide Technical Workers in Rural Development	Feb 1961
6	Communications in Rural Development	Mar 1961
7	The Role and Problems of Wives of American Technicians Overseas in Rural Development	Apr 1961
8	Thoughts on Administration in Extension and Rural Development	Apr 1961

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